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ABSTRACT

This document describes the trends in statewide assessment programs. It is based on surveys conducted for the Council of Chief State School Officers. Assessment directors from the 50 states were asked to provide information about the current state of assessment programs and to describe how the programs have changed over the past 6 years, including the 1996-97 school year. The following chapters contain information about state assessment programs: (1) "Introduction to the State Student Assessment Programs Database"; (2) "Overview of State Student Assessment Programs"; (3) "Newer Forms of Statewide Assessment"; (4) "Assessment of Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners"; and (5) "Statewide Assessment History and Trends." An appendix contains a summary table and two figures. (Contains 23 charts, 1 table, and 2 figures.) (SLD)

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ED 435 636

TRENDS

in

State
Student
Assessment
Programs

FALL 1997

Data on Statewide Student Assessment Programs

Linda Bond, CTB/McGraw-Hill
Edward Roeber, CCSSO
Selena Connealy, CCSSO

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The Council of Chief State School Officers

The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) is a nationwide, nonprofit organization composed of the public officials who head departments of elementary and secondary education in the states, the District of Columbia, the Department of Defense Education Activity, and five extra-state jurisdictions. CCSSO seeks its members' consensus on major educational issues and expresses their view to civic and professional organizations, federal agencies, Congress, and the public. Through its structure of standing and special committees, the Council responds to a broad range of concerns about education and provides leadership on major education issues.

Because the Council represents the chief education administrators, it has access to the educational and governmental establishment in each state and to the national influence that accompanies this unique position. CCSSO forms coalitions with many other education organizations and is able to provide leadership for a variety of policy concerns that affect elementary and secondary education. Thus, CCSSO members are able to act cooperatively on matters vital to the education of America's young people.

The State Education Assessment Center provides a central clearinghouse to improve data acquisition, monitoring, and the assessment of education. The State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS) was formed to network states and other groups to develop assessment designs, as well as prototype and complete assessment components for a variety of content areas. Projects are taking place in arts education, assessing students with disabilities, comprehensive assessment systems for Goals 2000/IASA Title I, health education, limited-English proficient assessment, science education, social studies, technical guidelines for performance assessment, and workplace readiness. The goal in all of these projects is to encourage the development of higher quality student assessments at lower cost to the states.

The Council also supports the Association of State Assessment Programs (ASAP), an informal network of state assessment staff, in order to provide direct assistance to the states.

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TRENDS

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State Student Assessment Programs

FALL 1997

Data on Statewide Student Assessment Programs

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PREFACE

This is the fifth edition of the *Trends in State Student Assessment Programs*, a product of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). This is the first year that CCSSO has conducted the survey on its own. The survey will continue in the future under the direction of CCSSO with new partners, since the annual survey remains the single best source for information about statewide student assessment programs and its contents are comprehensive, accurate, and up-to-date.

This documents describes the trends in statewide assessment programs. It is based on surveys conducted in the past for the Association of State Assessment Programs (ASAP) by its chair, Edward Roeber. This year's survey was extensively revised by an advisory committee assembled by CCSSO. Surveys were mailed to states in September 1997. States were asked to describe the assessment program(s) they operated during the 1996-97 school year. Surveys were received from October 1997 through February 1998 and were processed by CCSSO for data entry, survey completion, and editing. Between December 1997 and February 1998, each assessment director received a copy of his or her state's information for editorial review and updates. These changes were made by CCSSO, who also produced the final tables, tabulations of results, and all charts and graphs used to display the results.

The data from 1996-97 plus the prior five years provide a rich lode of information on the status of and trends in state assessment practice. This report provides the reader with information on the current status of programs, as well as descriptions of how the programs have changed over the years. A companion document, *Annual Survey of Statewide Student Assessment Programs, Fall 1997*, is also available from CCSSO. The data are also available in electronic form. An order form is attached to this document. Selected and updated information from the database and these documents are also available at CCSSO's web site (http://www.ccsso.org).

Please feel free to contact CCSSO if you have any questions about this document, state assessment programs, or other questions.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the State Student Assessment Programs Database

The topic of student assessment generates considerable controversy among educators, policy makers, and members of the public. Some view large-scale assessment programs as a critical element of the reform and change needed in American schools. Two primary reasons for this are: (1) assessment can provide direction and motivation to students, parents, teachers, and others to help students learn the skills needed to succeed both in school and in life after school; and (2) assessment programs can help gauge the success of our schools. An indication of the strength of their appeal is the number of states that currently have assessment programs: 48. Of the remaining two states, Nebraska has legislation requiring statewide assessment by the year 2000, and Iowa runs a statewide voluntary testing program in which virtually all school districts volunteer to participate.

However, there are educators, policy makers, and members of the public who view many large-scale assessments with reservations. Critics believe such programs can exert negative pressure on teachers and students. Much of the debate surrounds such issues as the content covered by the assessments, the type of assessment used, how the assessments are scored, and the uses made of the assessment results. But, however viewed, large-scale statewide assessment programs are a fact of life in the United States.

While state assessment programs share some common purposes and methods, they can also be quite different from one another. Differences exist for various reasons: the educational policy climate in the state, the technical quality issues surrounding the use of assessment to make high-stakes decisions, or the status of curricular reform in the state. We need to recognize these differences in order to understand the assessment programs that exist and the options that are available to change these programs.

In addition, we need to recognize the movement in Washington, DC to change the federal role in education by shifting more responsibility for education to the states. A result of this shift has been that states have been given more control over the educational resources provided to their schools. Similarly, some states have shifted more responsibility and control from the state to the district and school levels. The price for increased flexibility and control has traditionally been increased accountability, and therefore, increased assessment. Historically, much assessment activity and experimentation in new forms of assessment have occurred at the state level. We will be keeping an eye on how these shifts in responsibility affect state assessment and whether state assessment will continue to play a major role in educational reform.

The Association of State Assessment Programs (ASAP), an informal organization of state assessment directors, began collecting information about large-scale assessment programs at the state level in 1977. The results of the annual ASAP surveys were provided to states in the form of a written summary of each state's assessment program. In 1991, Ed Roeber, ASAP's chair, became director of student assessment programs for the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO). A partnership with the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL) produced the initial State Student Assessment Program (SSAP) database. However, last year was the final year for this partnership and CCSSO is continuing the survey with new partners.

As the amount of information increases over time, we can provide more meaningful information to states because we are able to monitor patterns of change in state assessment programs. As data collection continues in the future, we hope to sharpen the analysis of change in statewide assessment practices.

The survey annually collects three kinds of information. Part One of the survey asks each state to describe its existing program, what it is developing, and resources allocated to the overall program. Part Two of the survey asks each state to describe its efforts in nontraditional assessment as well as to answer in-depth questions about particular aspects of their assessment programs, such as plans for setting

standards for their assessment program or plans for using their assessment program(s) for IASA Title I reporting. Part Three of the survey asks each state to describe each assessment program, component, or group of assessments that are used to gather a set of data used for the same assessment purposes. For each component, states explain who is tested, what subjects are tested, and what types of assessments are used. In addition, states described accommodations provided to students with disabilities and students learning English (LEP), and reporting practices

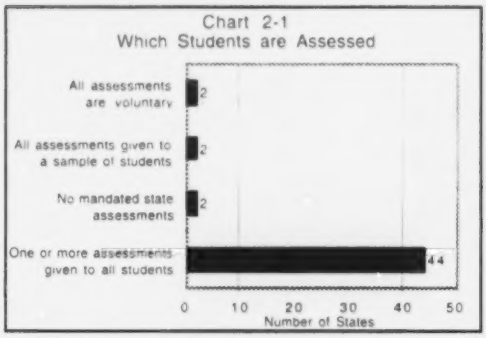
From this detail, we can build a more detailed picture of what statewide assessment programs look like and how they are attempting to accomplish their state assessment goals. This report is a summary to provide an understanding of what the 50 states are doing and how they are doing it.

CHAPTER TWO
Overview of State Student Assessment Programs

This chapter provides an overview of the assessments that states conduct. We look at which students are assessed by states, in which subjects and at which grade levels. We also explore the type(s) of assessment states use, the types of items included on the assessments, and what time of year the assessments are administered. Finally, we look at the partners states use in the assessment development and implementation process. A tabular overview of this information appears in the Summary Table in the Appendix of this report. The detailed responses for each state to the survey are available in a companion publication, *Annual Survey of State Student Assessment Programs, Fall 1997.*

Pervasiveness of Statewide Assessment

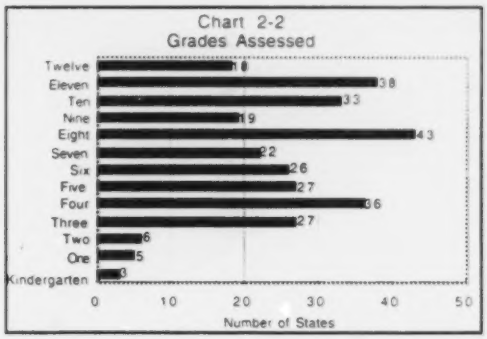
Statewide assessment programs are almost universal. States have the option of administrating their assessments in several different ways: to all eligible students, to a sample of students, or on a voluntary basis. As indicated in Chart 2-1, most states choose to include all possible students in at least one set of assessments.



Given that 48 states administered statewide student assessments in the 1996-97 school year, it is clear that statewide student assessment is an important factor in making educational decisions in states nationwide.

Which Grades are Assessed

States assess kindergarten students through students in twelfth-grade, but as indicated in Chart 2-2, some grades are assessed more often than others.



Elementary school grades are assessed more consistently than high school grades. In addition, few states assess early childhood grades (kindergarten through second grade). The three grades that are assessed the most often are grades 4, 8, and 11. These assessments commonly serve as summative assessments of elementary, middle, or high school performance.

Why States Assess with Statewide Assessments

There are two basic reasons why states conduct assessments: to improve instruction and to hold schools and students accountable. Charts 2-3 and 2-4 (next page) summarize the basic purposes and highlight the main specific purposes.

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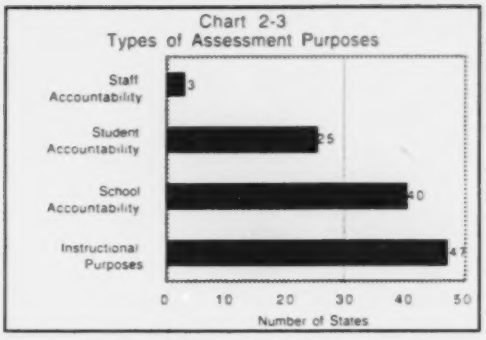
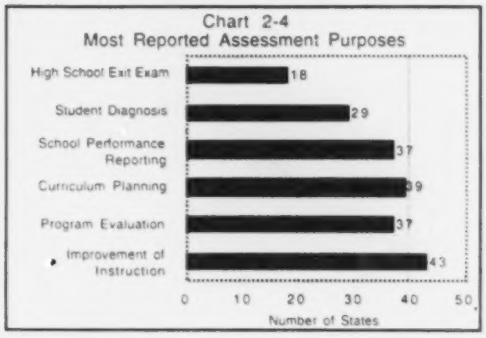


As Chart 2-3 indicates, virtually all states with assessment programs report using them for improving instruction. Purposes designed to impact classroom or building-level practice (e.g., curriculum planning) are reported more often than those affecting individual students (e.g., student placement). In a similar way, school-level accountability purposes (e.g., school performance reporting) are reported more often than purposes that impact students directly (e.g., high school graduation testing). Statewide student assessment programs are seldom used for staff accountability purposes.



High school graduation tests are the most popular type of individual student accountability purpose reported. States may use these tests as a high school exit requirement, to grant an endorsement on a diploma, or to award an honors diploma. Figure 2-1 (in the Appendix) shows the distribution of high school graduation tests of all types nationwide.

The use of these tests is concentrated in two geographical areas: almost all of the states on the southern United States border and most of the eastern seaboard. They are also gaining in popularity in the Midwest. The northwestern states generally do not use high school graduation tests. However, states as far west as Nevada and Hawaii do. States that perform very well on traditional measures of student success, such as the ACT and the SAT, do not tend to implement high school graduation tests, or as elaborate state assessment systems as those that perform less well.

Issues around designing assessments to meet the purposes of instructional improvement and accountability simultaneously are also important to consider. States report in almost all cases that they have at least one assessment program that both serves to improve instruction and to provide accountability. Combining these two purposes in one program may result in conflicts in test design and impact the availability of the results.

Designing an assessment program to meet high-stakes accountability purposes typically requires standardization of test content, administration, and scoring. Accuracy of scoring and standardization of test administration procedures are paramount. Test security is high, with results determined at a centralized scoring center and returned weeks, sometimes months, after the assessment is administered. The very safeguards that ensure comparability and fairness limit the utility of the results for instructional decision-making.

For an assessment to be effective as an instructional improvement tool, the results need to be made available almost immediately so that teachers can adjust their instruction. Reviewing assessments over the summer may be helpful for curriculum planning, but teachers need access to ongoing assessment information to modify instructional strategies within the classroom. A classroom-based assessment system, albeit somewhat standardized by virtue of the learning goals being assessed, requires continuous, unobtrusive collection of assessment data, flexible administration, and immediate feedback. Unfortunately, this flexibility is typically viewed as conflicting with the standardization necessary for accountability purposes.

The state assessment directors acknowledge the difficulty inherent in using the same assessment for both instructional improvement and

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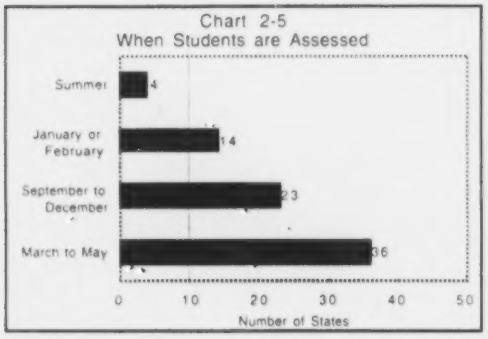
accountability purposes. However, state law and regulation often requires them to do so. States, therefore, are designing assessment systems that address both purposes in ways that minimize the conflict between them.

When Assessments are Administered

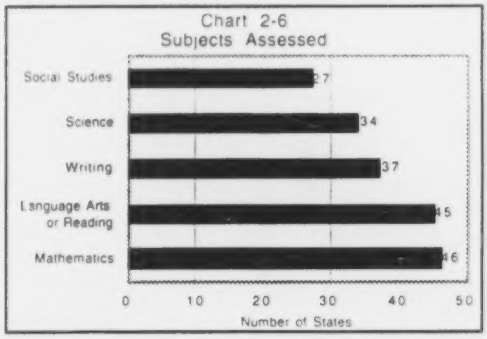
Assessments meant to serve the purposes of improvement of instruction and educational accountability would ideally be administered at different times during the school year. Assessments used to improve instruction would be given in the early part of the school year in order to provide timely feedback for school administrators and teachers. Assessments used for educational accountability would be given at the end of the school year to measure student knowledge at the latest possible time. As Chart 2-5 indicates, almost all states assess some or all students near the end of the school year (March, April, or May) and many states also administer some assessments during the fall semester (September to December).



The many assessments administered in the late spring may be ideal for accountability purposes, but they are almost always reportedly used in some way to improve instruction as well. Since assessments that are administered in the spring tend to be returned to schools near the end of the school year (or during the summer), using the results to inform instructional decisions for the students tested is almost impossible. However, it is possible that the results can be used to review the curriculum during the summer and to give the students' teachers in the next grade level some baseline information as they start the year.

What Subjects are Assessed

As Chart 2-6 indicates, traditional subjects are the ones most assessed in statewide assessments.



Mathematics and language arts are assessed by almost all states. Writing and science are assessed by more than two-thirds of the states, and social studies is assessed by a little more than one-half of the states. As has been the case for many years, the three R's (reading, writing, and arithmetic) are still the most commonly assessed subjects.

What differentiates state assessments in each of these subject areas is the content standards upon which the assessment content is developed or selected (if it is a shelf test). Some states have moved in the direction recommended by a number of curriculum reform advocates, writing content standards that are focused on how the student applies what has been learned, how they make connections between the new things they have learned and what has been learned previously, and the strategies the student employs to solve problems or address new situations, such as an item or task on the assessment. Because these states are interested in the *process* the student uses to respond to the assessment item, they tend to administer open-ended assessment items that allow the scorer to see how the student has approached the assessment task. Most states have at least some "process" content standards, such as "being able to write for a variety of audiences" and use open-ended assessment items or tasks to address these standards.

Most states also have content standards that require students to demonstrate their knowledge and conceptual understanding of

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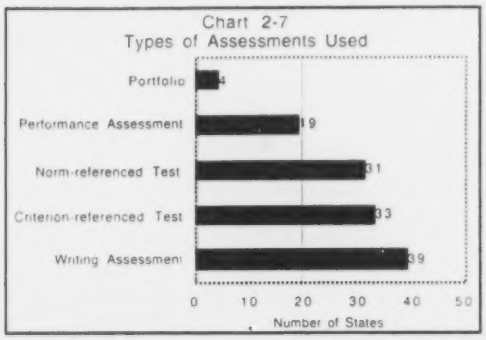
subject matter. These types of standards lend themselves to assessment approaches that require one correct answer, such as multiple-choice or short answer items. In the next chapter, we discuss the types of assessments and assessment items states include in their assessments and we will tie that decision back to the standards question.

What Types of Assessments are Used

As indicated in Chart 2-7 and Chart 2-8, states use a variety of tests and item types to assess student knowledge.



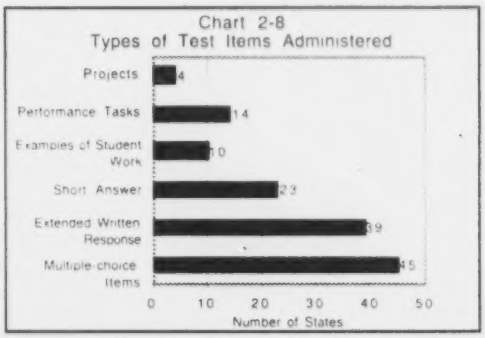
Writing assessment, and criterion- and norm-referenced tests are the most common types of assessment reported by states. States report that they are using performance assessment more often (up from 17 states last year), while portfolio assessment is still used by only a few states.

To understand what it is that states are referring to as "performance assessment," we asked states to report specifically what types of items were used on the assessments they administer statewide. In Chart 2-8, we see that almost all states use multiple-choice items, traditionally found on criterion- and norm-referenced tests, because of the psychometric advantages, ease of administration, and low cost of scoring associated with them. Extended written responses, most commonly found on writing assessments, are the most common type of non-multiple-choice item used by states. Writing assessments typically require the student to write in response to a writing prompt for the purpose of assessing the student's writing ability.

A growing form of assessment is the short-answer item. States are finding that they can obtain a little more information about the student's application of knowledge by using short answer items than by using all multiple-choice items, and the cost of scoring is less than for the scoring of extended response items, performance items, or projects.

Examples of student work from the classroom are used in state assessment programs more often than are portfolios. Perhaps this is not surprising when we consider that portfolios are typically a collection of samples of student's work. Only one or two of the samples may actually be used for state assessment purposes.

Performance tasks and projects are slowly growing in use by states and are considered for the purposes of this study to be "performance assessments." However, some states still refer to extended written responses as performance assessments since the student must "perform" by writing. Even though there is a glossary that defines these terms included in the survey of state assessment directors, some still use their own definitions. This suggests that the term "performance assessment" can indicate a variety of assessment types, including extended written response, performance tasks, and/or projects.



In the previous section, we explained how the different emphases in content standards (knowledge vs. process) can influence states' choices in the types of items they include in their assessments. This is one area in which state assessment personnel and curriculum personnel sometimes conflict.

Assessment staff want to measure whatever can be measured accurately and tend to focus on the

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technical quality of an assessment in order to ensure this. Multiple-choice and short-answer items allow more control over technical quality. Curriculum staff are concerned about the message the assessment is sending about what is important to teach and are worried that multiple-choice and short-answer items encourage teachers to focus on teaching facts instead of helping students to acquire the skills they need to be successful in school and in later life.

This difference may be illustrated with two different types of reading items. After the student has read something, the "factual item" focuses on whether the student understood what was read, while the "process item" will seek to elicit what reading strategy the student employed.

When the two assessment concerns, quality measurement and the promotion of quality instruction, are both taken into account, assessments that include a variety of item types are the result. This combined approach is becoming the norm in state assessments, suggesting that both assessment concerns are being considered.

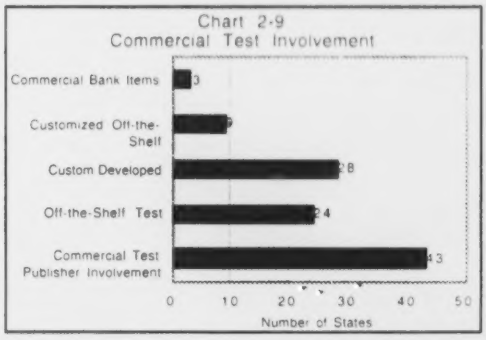
Still, the emphasis on factual and conceptual understanding versus process standards can result in significantly different assessments. Both may have multiple-choice items. Both may have open-ended items. But in one state the focus of the majority of the items will be on knowledge and conceptual understanding, while in the other, process skills will be the focus.

Another factor that influences assessment design decisions is public support for funding assessments. Because multiple-choice and short-answer items tend to be easier and less costly to score than more open-ended process tasks, and because a states' non-educators tend to accept these "right and wrong" items more readily than process items, most states rely heavily on these types of items.

Who States Rely Upon as Partners

In designing, administering, and scoring statewide assessments, states often depend on commercial test publishing companies to help with some or all of the work. As indicated in Chart 2-9, the majority of states have worked with commercial test publishers on at least one statewide assessment. This may be because of the technical quality issues that have arisen because of the inclusion of open-ended items or tasks in state assessment, causing many states to seek assistance from measurement professionals who tackle these issues on a more regular basis. States may also seek assistance because they want a custom designed test or to customize an existing test in order to have the test better match the state curriculum or content standards.

Another way publishers become involved in state assessment is to make available national, norm-referenced tests, which 31 states report as using, to compare the performance of their students to a national sample of students at the same grade level who took the same test.



States also seek the help of universities and private consultants for the development and scoring of customized assessments.

The Common Element in State Assessment Programs—Change

The fact that nearly every state has a state assessment program, however, does not suggest that these 48 programs are alike. Nor does it suggest that the assessment program that was first implemented by any given state is the same program that is now in place. The one constant in state assessment programs is the fact that they change.

We find that a few state programs undergo significant changes during each SSAP data collection cycle. For example, California has had three major changes in state assessment approach and philosophy since 1993, the first year that CCSSO and NCREL administered the

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revised SSAP survey. The state is currently developing new standards and anticipates implementing a new criterion-referenced assessment system in a few years.

In some states the changes are more pronounced than others, again depending on the political climate and the educational and public support for the program. Two states, Indiana and Wisconsin, lost funding for the implementation of non-traditional assessment programs that had already been developed and pilot-tested. Groups of constituents who were concerned about the subjectivity and "personal invasiveness" of open-ended items initiated the attacks in both states. However, the final result was different, in part due to different political climates, longevity of the program, resources for the program, and support from those outside the Department of Education. Indiana ended up with a blending of the existing and the new program, while Wisconsin's new program was shelved.

Why the different outcomes? The stability of the state assessment program, the resources devoted to assessment development, design and research, and the support from political and educational leaders in the two states differed considerably.

Indiana's program had been in place for seven years, with slight modifications, when the legislative changes were sought. Local educators appreciated the stability of the program and recognized that the proposed changes were led by the revisions in content standards adopted by the State Board of Education and supported by educators throughout the state. In fact, all major state educational leadership groups (i.e., teachers' unions, superintendents' and principals' groups, school boards association, subject area groups, etc.) supported the new assessment legislation.

There was general bipartisan agreement that the assessment and accountability program were important components of the state's educational reform effort, and the original legislation was jointly sponsored by a Democratic Governor and a Republican State Superintendent. The Governor's office and the Department of Education worked together on the design and implementation of the program. Indiana also invested in a technical advisory committee of national experts and relied heavily upon contracted researchers, both of whom tempered the clamor for change with an insistence on technical quality.

When the program was attacked by a public that did not understand the changes, and conservatives who feared invasion of student privacy and lowering of standards, the program's supporters were able to save many of the key components, such as open-ended math problems, an integrated reading/language arts task, and a writing assessment.

Wisconsin's program did not enjoy the longevity or the stability of the Indiana program. The component of the program that was in place when the legislation failed, the Knowledge and Concepts exam, had changed contractors and assessments every two years. Like in Indiana, the Governor was also from a different political party than the State Superintendent, and while supportive of assessment and accountability, he and the Department of Public Instruction were not partners in the assessment program design.

School districts also were not very supportive. Wisconsin had been a local control state and there had never been state standards or a state test. All of these factors may have influenced the program's ultimate defeat in the legislature.

Ohio's Associate Superintendent in charge of assessment, Roger Trent, refers to the constant changes in the landscape of state assessment programs as the "orange barrel syndrome." He suggests that just as the orange construction barrels re-route one's trip to work each spring, so too do changes in political climate, educational philosophy, and educational leadership re-route state assessment programs. Since it takes approximately three to five years for states to move from the passing of assessment legislation to the implementation of the assessment program, it is not uncommon for states to receive several shifts in direction during that five-year period. How drastic these shifts are depend on a number of factors within a state – political, educational, and technical.

Summary

Over the last six years, certain findings of the survey have been consistent. State assessment remains a significant tool for educational reform in 48 states. In general, students are assessed most often at grades 4, 8, and 11 for the purposes of improvement of instruction, school accountability or school performance reporting, and program evaluation. Approximately one-third of the states with assessment programs use an exam to certify that students have some necessary skills prior to graduation from high school. Most of these states require students to achieve a passing score on the assessment in order to graduate, while others provide students with a special seal or endorsement if they pass the test. Students are most often assessed with a combination of multiple-choice testing (either a norm-referenced test or a criterion-referenced test) and writing samples, with multiple-choice testing, writing samples, and alternative assessment (short answer, extended response and/or performance assessment) a very close second. Only a few states rely on multiple-choice testing or alternative assessments exclusively. The use of alternative assessments or constructed response testing in conjunction with multiple-choice testing continues to grow, but the exclusive use of one form of assessment is lessening.

The tensions that exist when assessment is used for both school or student accountability and instructional improvement continue to cause difficulty for those who design and implement assessment programs. Unfortunately, most state legislatures require these conflicting purposes in their state assessment programs. Placing negative consequences on poor performance, thus increasing the stakes for schools and students further complicates the tensions.

The one word that describes state assessment activity over the past four years is change, and this change seems to be occurring at an even greater pace. The Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) and the resulting examination and revision of states' standards appeared to be driving much of that change away from norm-referenced assessment and in the direction of open-ended forms of assessment. The attacks in many states against open-ended assessments as being "subjective," "untested," or "values-driven" seem to be driving assessment back to a focus on knowledge and conceptual understanding. In many states, these competing forces are resulting in a blending of assessment types, traditional multiple-choice assessment along with short-answer, extended response and performance assessment.

Norm-referenced assessment is not going away, probably because it provides national comparative data for states—something that is not available with standards-based criterion-referenced assessments. Policymakers want to be ensured that their students are doing as well or better than students in other states and norm-referenced tests provide one way to get "comparable results." Rather than deciding on one form of assessment over another, states are using a combination of assessment types to meet the many types of content standards and assessment purposes being addressed. However, they are doing this in very different ways.

CHAPTER THREE
Newer Forms of Statewide Assessment

Conventional multiple-choice assessments continue to be the most popular form of assessment in state assessment programs, but the number of states that rely exclusively on multiple-choice assessment is small. That number has changed slightly from a low of five (5) states in 1993-94 to a high of nine (9) states in 1994-95. Six (6) states reported using only multiple-choice items in their state assessment programs during the 1996-97 school year, the most current year for which data are available.

Although exclusive reliance on multiple-choice is uncommon, forty-five states report using multiple-choice items as part of their state assessment program (up from forty-one states last year), and twenty-nine of these have at least one assessment component within their system that relies exclusively on norm-referenced and/or criterion-referenced multiple-choice items. Clearly, multiple-choice remains a favorite assessment choice for states, but it is not the only choice.

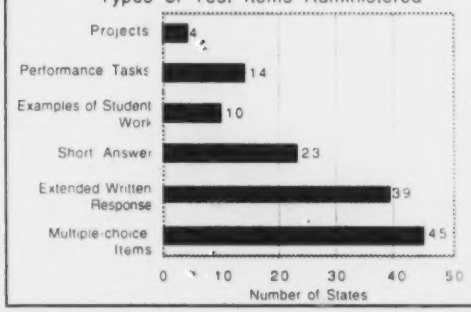
Prompted by a growing concern that the kinds of skills needed for success in the 21st century go beyond those that are typically taught and assessed in educational settings, states have been revising their student learning goals, their curricula, and the forms of assessment they use. As a major part of the educational reform effort of the 1990s, states have explored alternative[1] forms of assessment, which require students to produce answers rather than simply select correct answers. Instead of replacing traditional assessments, however, most states are adding non-traditional assessments to their state assessment programs to measure those skills that cannot be measured with multiple-choice assessment.

An Overview of Non-Traditional Assessment

Each year we try to get a better idea of what types of assessment items are considered "alternative" or "performance" assessment by states. In Chart 3-1, we see that forty-five (45) states reported using multiple-choice items, thirty-nine (39) use extended written responses, twenty-three (23) use short written responses, ten (10) use examples of students' work, fourteen (14) use performance tasks, and four (4) use student projects. Increases in the use of multiple-choice items, extended written responses and performance tasks are notable this year.

Some states that relied almost exclusively on performance assessment, such as Kentucky, have added multiple-choice assessment to improve the reliability of their assessment results, and/or to produce national comparisons. On the other hand, some states that relied primarily on multiple-choice assessment are adding alternative forms of assessment to improve the match between their assessment approaches and their standards. Over the last five years we have observed a trend toward a mixed or blended model of assessment.

Chart 3-1
Types of Test Items Administered



The most common forms of "alternative" assessment are paper-and-pencil extended and short answer written items or on-demand performance tasks. Hands-on forms of alternative assessment such as portfolio

[1] Throughout this chapter, alternative assessment and non-traditional assessment refer to non-multiple-choice assessment. The two terms are used interchangeably.

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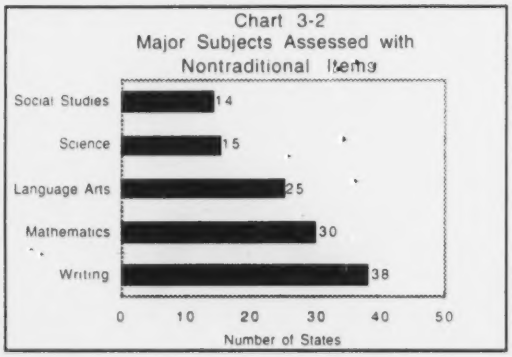
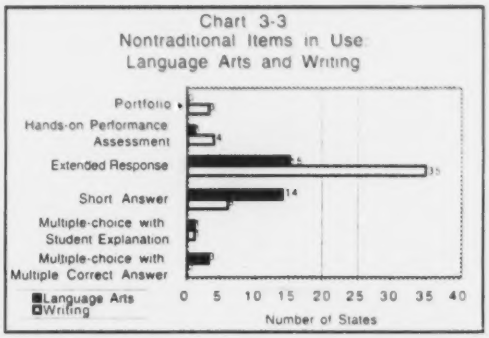
assessment and student projects that require more than an average testing or instructional period to conduct are less commonly used in state assessment programs. The practical considerations of performance assessment – increased testing time, increased cost of scoring, fear of subjective scoring, fear of assessing student values rather than achievement, and difficulty in generalizing performance from a small number of tasks – has led to increased use of alternative options in conjunction with multiple-choice items.

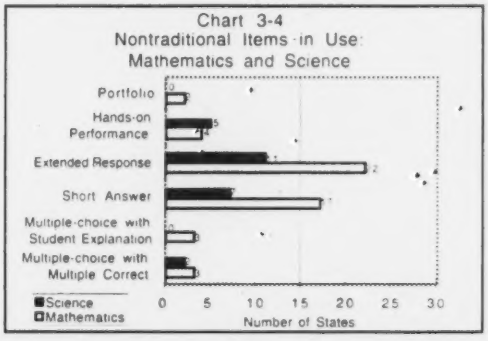
The subjects assessed with non-traditional assessment are the same as the subjects assessed with traditional forms of assessment. In Chart 3-2, we see that writing continues to be the subject most commonly assessed with alternative assessment, using extended written responses. This year, a close second is mathematics, followed by language arts, science, and social studies.



The types of non-traditional assessment items in use vary with the types of subjects being assessed. In Chart 3-3, we see that in the vast majority of cases, states use extended written responses to assess language arts and writing, with short written responses being the second choice. Since the student is being asked to write, it makes sense that extended and short "written" responses would be the most frequently used options.



With mathematics, science, and social studies, short answer and extended response items continue to be the most popular forms of non-traditional assessment approaches in use. Very few states use performance tasks, projects or computer adaptive testing. Chart 3-4 shows the types of non-traditional assessment items used in mathematics and science.



Non-traditional Exercise Development

There is considerable development of non-traditional items taking place within states, with the vast majority of the items being piloted, ready for use or in use (See Chart 3-5 for language arts and writing, Chart 3-6 for mathematics and science).

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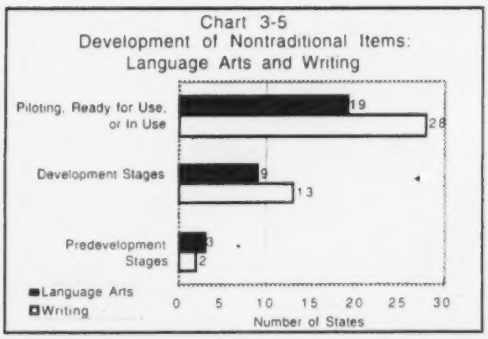
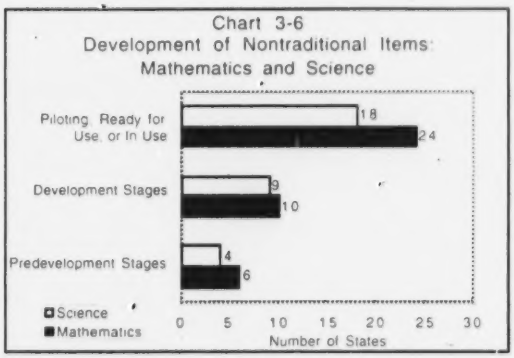


This pattern may indicate that most of the states are very close to implementing, or have already implemented alternative assessment items. Development work is ongoing, however, because new alternative tasks or items are being developed to replace the ones that have already been used. These items tend to be short answer or essay (extended response) items, and tend to be in the traditional subject areas of writing, language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Wyoming is a notable exception to this in that it assesses only vocational education students with a wide variety of alternative assessment approaches.



A Blend of Assessment Approaches is Most Common

Most states have added these alternatives to their existing forms of assessment, but in some cases as separate assessment components. In fact, thirty-five states have at least one assessment component that includes no multiple-choice items. In looking at Figure 3-1 (see Appendix) we see that most states have some combination of assessment types as part of their state assessment programs.

These combinations are divided into eight categories:

1. No statewide assessment (2 states: IA and NE)

2. Multiple-choice only (6 states: AZ, HI, MT, ND, SD, and WA)

3. Multiple-choice and Extended Response (13 states: AK, FL, IL, MN, NH, NV, OK, OR, PA, TN, TX, UT and WV)

4. Multiple-choice, Short Answer, and Extended Response (7 states: AR, CO, IN, MA, NJ, OH, and WI)

5. Multiple-choice, Extended Response, and Alternative Items (3 states: AL, KY, MO)

6. Multiple-choice, Short Answer, Extended Response, and Alternative Items (12 states: CT, GA, ID, KS, LA, MD, MI, MS, NC, NY, RI, and VT)

7. Multiple-choice, Short Answer, and Alternative Items (2 states: SC and VA)

8. Alternative items only (3 states: DE, ME, WY)

In the past, the most popular combination was multiple-choice and extended response. This year, the multiple-choice, short answer, extended response, and alternative item combination is employed by almost as many states (12), as the multiple choice and extended response combination (13 states). The number of states using multiple-choice assessment exclusively is up one from last year, while the number of states using extended response or alternative assessment exclusively is down from five to three. The two states that have added multiple-choice assessment to their alternative assessment programs are Kentucky, which was required to do so by its legislature, and Vermont. Of the three that continue to use alternative forms of assessment only, Delaware administers a writing assessment, Maine employs extended response items, and Wyoming[2] relies upon observation, examples of students' work, and projects.

Alternative Assessment Issues

Conventional multiple-choice assessments continue to be the most popular form of assessment in state assessment programs, but the number of states that rely exclusively on multiple-choice assessment is small. That

[2] Wyoming assesses students in vocational education only

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number has changed slightly from a low of five (5) states in 1993-94 to a high of nine (9) states in 1994-95. This year, six (6) states reported the use of multiple-choice assessment only. Although exclusive reliance on multiple-choice is uncommon, forty-five states report using multiple-choice items as part of their state assessment program, and thirty-one of these have at least one assessment component within their system that relies exclusively on norm-referenced and/or criterion-referenced multiple-choice items. Clearly, multiple-choice remains a favorite assessment choice for states, but it is not the only choice.

As a major part of this decade's educational reform effort, states have explored alternative forms of assessment which require students to produce answers rather than simply select correct answers. Interestingly, the number of states that use alternative forms of assessment exclusively has decreased over the last five years.

This may be a result of the demise of alternative assessment state programs that were leaders in alternative assessment development, such as California and Arizona, and the addition of multiple-choice assessment to others, such as Kentucky and Vermont. In fact Arizona is now one of the six (6) states that reports using only multiple-choice items, in their case a norm-referenced test. California is also using a norm-referenced test as its interim primary assessment program. The state is revising its content and performance standards and will move to a customized program in the future. California continues to use alternative assessment in its Golden State (end-of-course) exams, a fact that is not as well publicized as is the demise of the CLAS program.

While states have been moving toward the inclusion of alternative forms of assessment at a steady pace, few have made broad-sweeping changes to their programs without paying a political price. Several states engaged in the development of new, innovative assessment programs without involving the general public or parents, and several of them found out too late that these groups were not as enthusiastic about the changes as were the originators of the programs. In some instances, states that have not garnered public support have received criticism, or, as in the case of California and Arizona, have lost their alternative assessment programs as a result.

If parents believe that their children may be assessed subjectively or that the scoring is based on students reciting the "right" values rather than knowledge, they become nervous. Adding these concerns to a legislature's natural inclination not to spend money (alternative assessment programs tend to cost more than traditional programs), it is not surprising that some state programs have faltered.

In addition to parental and cost concerns, states have also faced criticism regarding the technical quality of alternative assessments. Are the scorers really able to assess essays or projects reliably (meaning students receive scores that are actually reflective of their level of knowledge and skill and not influenced by extraneous factors such as the toughness or leniency of the scorer)? Can they distinguish between a paper that has "some" of the trait being assessed versus the paper that has "very little" of that trait (terms that are often found in scoring rubrics)?

While improvements in the technical quality of alternative assessments are evident, alternative assessment supporters who claim that reliable scoring is unimportant and can be sacrificed in favor of improved validity have given alternative assessments a bad name. This is especially true in states that use these assessments for high stakes decision-making, such as high school graduation or school accreditation. Likewise, those who do not respect the goal of alternative assessment – the improved alignment between the curriculum and what is assessed – discount alternative assessment believing that reliability is all-important. In this case, one can end up with an assessment program that measures very accurately something about which we care very little.

Obviously, it is best when those who understand content and those who understand measurement work together to design an assessment system that is both reliable and valid. The growing movement of states toward the inclusion of many types of assessment approaches in their assessment programs is evidence that a blending of these two goals of improved assessment is widespread.

For these reasons, most states are combining traditional assessments with non-traditional assessments. They are also examining their traditional programs, which are getting a face-lift with new content and standards.

Constraints on Developing Non-traditional Assessments

States continue to struggle with a number of constraints concerning the implementation of alternative assessments. These include time and cost constraints, technical quality issues, and resistance to change.

Time

There are two time constraints. The first is the time it takes to develop a test. This is compounded by a sense of urgency: several states reported legislative mandates to put their programs into place before the tests were ready. The second constraint is the time to administer an alternative assessment in the classroom. In the time it would take a student to complete one or two performance tasks, that same student could have completed 200 items on a multiple-choice test..

Cost

Again, there are several issues. Since the technologies are new, the procedures to develop items or tasks are not nearly as well established as those to develop multiple-choice assessments. It takes more people more time to develop and test such items. The time required to administer alternative assessments in the classroom also adds to the cost. Alternative assessments require teachers or other professionals to record observational data or make judgments about extended artifacts of student performance. This requires the skill and time of individuals if the work of many students is to be assessed. Thus, alternative assessment items are more expensive to score than multiple-choice tests.

Professional development is also a considerable expense for alternative assessment—staff must to understand the changes, need training in the consistent conduct and use of alternative assessment items, and need support in using and reporting the results of alternative assessment. However, many states find that the professional development benefits derived from teachers who design, implement and/or score the non-traditional assessments is a major reason to continue this work.

Technical Quality

Because the use of non-traditional assessment items is relatively new, it is difficult to obtain uniform results. Some technical concerns are not unique to non-traditional items and may in fact pose less of a threat, i.e., the issue of validity (are we assessing important learning?). Other issues, such as reliability (whether student results are an accurate reflection of the student's performance rather than a result of extraneous influences such as who does the scoring) or generalizability (whether scores on this assessment would be similar to scores on similar assessments), continue to be daunting. There is so much more flexibility with non-traditional assessment that maintaining uniformity of administration, scoring and interpretation is difficult.

Resistance to Change

This resistance comes primarily from those most closely involved with assessment: students, teachers, and parents. All three groups are more familiar with standardized tests where minimal preparation and administration time is required, and reports are straight-forward and support a norm-referenced grading system (with grades like A, B, C, D, F). Organized parents groups have also fought the new assessments in a number of states due to concerns that the open-ended nature of performance assessments will allow students to be judged on the basis of the personal values expressed in their responses rather than their academic performance.

Summary

In reviewing the data on non-traditional assessment activity this year, it would appear that when states have implemented performance assessment as a slow and deliberate process, their programs have been spared. Connecticut was one of the first states to proceed with performance assessment, but did so only after the assessments had been

thoroughly researched. What the results are used for also seems to make a difference. Most of the states that report a lack of major difficulties in implementing non-traditional assessments tend to use their assessments as end-of-course exams (Alabama's Math End-of-Course Test, and California's Golden State Exams), for early-childhood screening (Georgia's Kindergarten Assessment Program), for career/employability skills assessment (Wyoming's Career-Technical Assessment Program), as instructional planning tools (Connecticut's Academic Performance Test), or when the alternative assessment is a writing sample (Idaho's Writing Assessment, Rhode Island's Writing Assessment, and Vermont's Uniform Test in Writing). All of these have fairly low-stakes purposes-- consequences of poor performance are not severe for students, schools and/or teachers.

State assessments come under attack most often when the use of the test results is high-stakes -- resulting in student graduation, school accreditation, or school takeover. Of course, these assessments receive the most press attention and public appraisal. Most assessment programs have flaws, but when severe consequences are dependent upon the results, any flaw becomes more pronounced.

In spite of the difficulties states have experienced in implementing non-traditional assessment programs, it is clear that strictly traditional programs are becoming uncommon. States are embracing new forms of assessment and looking for ways to make them work. It is an exciting time in large-scale assessment, and as long as the public is brought along, the technical quality issues are resolved, and the cost and time management issues are addressed, a blended assessment program will continue to be the preferred model of state assessment. Going back to the days of "one type fits all" assessment is highly unlikely.

CHAPTER FOUR

Assessment of Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners and Title I Assessment and Evaluation Plans

Part I: Assessment of Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners

When the 103rd Congress overhauled the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the new Title I legislation in the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) called upon states to hold all students to the same high expectations and to ensure they have equal educational opportunities. The definition of those high expectations and the design of the assessment system to determine whether or not students have achieved those high expectations are left to individual states and local school districts. This has spurred a growing debate over which students should be tested, how that testing should be conducted, and how assessment results should be reported and used. A major concern surrounds the inclusion of students with disabilities and English language learners in statewide assessment programs.

Four questions are of paramount importance in understanding the current practice of assessing students. What are the criteria for exempting students with disabilities or English language learners and who makes exemption decisions; what kinds of special testing conditions or accommodations are allowed to enable these students to participate; are alternate assessments available; and are their scores included in public reports and accountability measures? These questions were included in the Fall 1997 edition of the of State Student Assessment Programs (SSAP) survey. Additional information about the assessment of students with disabilities is provided by the National Center on Educational Outcomes (NCEO), a group committed to assisting states in implementing activities to improve outcomes for these students, and to documenting states' efforts in doing so (Ysseldyke, 1996).

Participation Policy for Students with Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners

States were asked to describe their inclusion policy for students with disabilities and most reported that the decision was left to the students IEP committee as to "whether or not the student could meaningfully participate." Some states provide guidelines specifying that if the student is in the regular education program for at least half of his or her instruction in that subject, then the student should be tested.

Still, the IEP committee makes the final determination. The IEP committee also determines whether or not the student requires testing accommodations in order to participate, with an increasing number of states stipulating that the testing accommodation must be consistent with those modifications which are already used in the student's instructional program. The decision to include or exclude a student and the testing accommodations to be allowed must be documented in the student's IEP.

Decisions to include or exclude English language learners from a state assessment also tend to be made at the local level. In most states, the decision to include English language learners is based upon the amount of time in the United States, the amount of time an English as Second Language (ESL) program, and/or their score on a test of English proficiency.

For all states with a high school graduation test, the inclusion or exclusion of students with disabilities or English language learners in assessment presents two added concerns – should students who are excluded from the graduation test receive a diploma, and should students who take the high school graduation test under non-standardized conditions receive a special designation on their diploma that documents this? If the accommodation affects that student's score in a way that gives the

student an advantage when compared to other students, the accuracy of the certification of competence comes into question.

Although we didn't address these issues specifically in the survey, a number of states addressed these concerns in their response to the general questions about inclusion and accommodation policies. For example, in Florida, only students who take the graduation test may receive a regular diploma, and other students who do not take the state test are encouraged to pursue special high school diploma requirements.

Until Title I legislation called for the assessment of all students, most states left the decision about inclusion and accommodation to their local districts. The increased attention being paid to the topic is evident in the increased number of sessions on the subject at educational conferences such as the American Educational Research Association (AERA) conference and CCSSO's National Conference on Large-Scale Assessment. AERA also has a Special Interest Group on the Assessment of Special Populations.

Participation of Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners in Statewide Assessment

Forty-one states have written guidelines about the participation of students with disabilities in their statewide assessment programs, but of the 133 different assessments employed by states, participation rates can be estimated by state special education directors for only 49 of them (Ysseldyke, 1996). When participation rates for students with disabilities are given (by only 18 states), they range from 3.5 to 15 percent of the total tested elementary population and .4 to 12 percent of the total tested high school population.

The accuracy of these participation rates is questioned by both state testing directors and special education directors because the data are not collected systematically in many places. Even with our improved questions, the information is difficult to obtain given that the decision about whether or not to include a student with disabilities in the state assessment program tends to be a local Individualized Education Plan (IEP) committee decision. The state may not even know how many students with disabilities are exempted from testing.

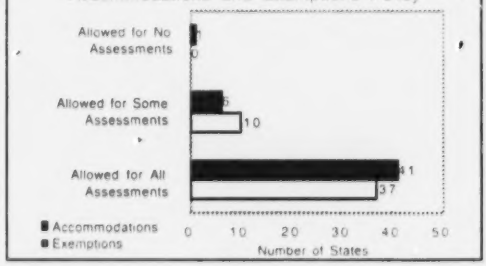
These data are even less well understood for English language learners where states estimate that from .2 to 6 percent of the elementary students and from .2 to 5 percent of the high school students who are assessed are English language learners.

Better and more precise information about the assessment of students with disabilities and English language learners will need to be collected at the state level in order to have an accurate estimate of the participation rates of these students. As such, the information included in this report reflects states' policies, and not necessarily states' practices.

Inclusion and Exclusion of Students with Disabilities and English Language Learners

Chart 4-1 shows that 37 states allow some students with disabilities to be exempted from all state assessments, ten allow for their exclusion for some assessments, and no state disallows exclusions for all their assessments. For English language learners, 29 states allow exemption from all state assessments, 11 allow it for some assessments and four do not allow exemptions. See Chart 4-2.

Chart 4-1
Students with Disabilities
Accommodations and Exemptions Policy



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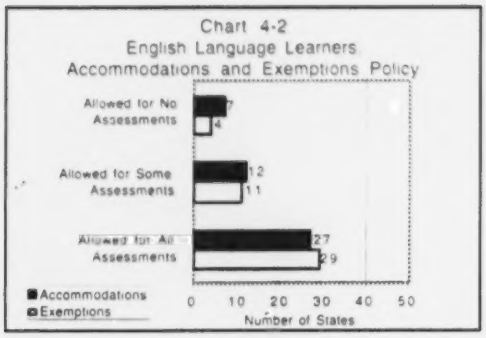


Testing Accommodations Allowed

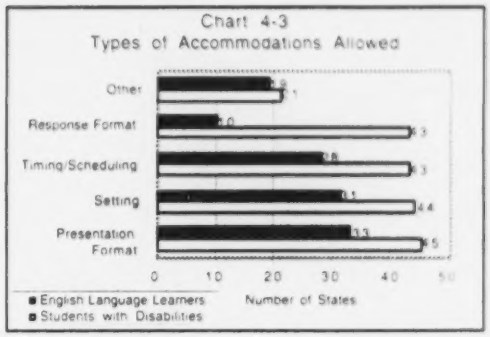
When students with disabilities or English language learners are included in statewide assessment, the extent to which testing accommodations are allowed varies. From Chart 4-1 we see that only one state includes students with disabilities in state assessment programs without accommodations, and 41 include them with accommodations. Six more states allow accommodations for some, but not all, of their assessments.

Seven states include English language learners in their assessments without accommodations, 12 states allow accommodations with some assessments, and 27 include them in all assessments with accommodations. See Chart 4-2.

For most accommodations decisions, if the assessment is deemed inappropriate – if the student is not expected to master the content of the assessment as part of the student's instructional plan – a decision may be made to exclude him or her from the assessment. If the assessment is seen as appropriate as is, the student is included without accommodation. If the assessment is seen as appropriate, but only with accommodations, the student is included with the appropriate accommodations. However, in most states, a great deal of local flexibility exists, and local districts interpret the broad state policies in various ways.

Types of Testing Accommodations Allowed

This year, we divided allowable testing accommodations into five categories: presentation format, setting, timing or scheduling, response format, and other accommodations. Chart 4-3 shows the kinds of accommodations allowed for students with disabilities and for English language learners.



Forty-five states allow students with disabilities to have accommodations in the way the test is presented to them. Typical accommodations include those offered to blind students or students with low vision such as large print or Braille editions of the test, and the reading, interpretation, or repetition of test directions.

For Limited English Proficient students, thirty-three (33) states allowed accommodation on presentation format. Common accommodations include the reading, interpretation and repetition of directions. Nineteen (19) states allowed the translation of the directions; ten (10) states allowed the translation of the test items into the student's native language.

Setting accommodations for students with disabilities are permitted in 44 states. As might be expected, the kinds of accommodations that are allowed include individual test administration, small group settings, and/or administration by someone with whom the student is familiar. English language learners are allowed similar kinds of accommodations, although in fewer states (31).

Changes in the timing or scheduling of assessments is allowed for students with disabilities in 43 states. Extended testing time, more frequent breaks, and the spreading out of testing sessions across several days are typical modifications in timing and scheduling. Similar accommodations are allowed for English language learners, although once again, in fewer states (28).

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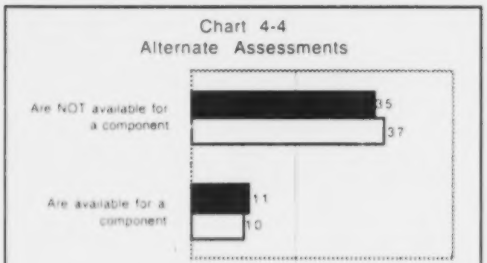
Students with disabilities are allowed accommodations in the way in which they respond to the assessment in 43 states. Students may use a computer or word processor or have a scribe record their responses. With English language learners, students may also be allowed to respond in their native language, although this is allowed in only five (5) states.

In the other accommodations category, some states allow students with disabilities and English language learners to use word lists/dictionaries, and/or allow out-of-level testing for students with disabilities.

Alternate Assessment

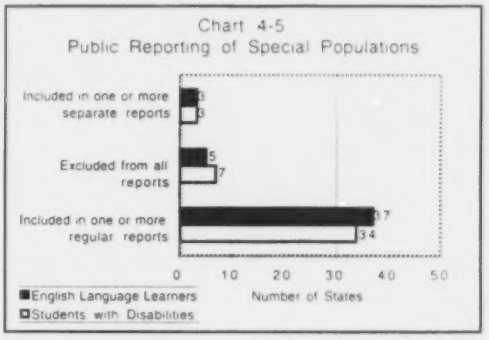
There are some students for whom the regular assessment, even with accommodations, is not appropriate. These students may be unable to meaningfully participate in the assessment because their educational goals and standards are different than most students, or their level of English proficiency may not be high enough. In the past, these students have generally been exempted from state assessments. Now, Federal legislation such as the Improving America's School Act (IASA) which funds Title I programs, and the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), require that English language learners and students with disabilities participate in state assessment programs, and that alternate assessments be provided for students for whom the regular assessment is inappropriate.



Only 10 states report that an alternate assessment is available for students with disabilities for any of the assessment components in their state assessment program. Alternate assessments are available to English language learners in only 11 states. That leaves the vast majority of states with no alternate assessment for either students with disabilities (37) or English language learners (35). It is clear that states will been grappling with this issue in the future.

Public Reporting and Use of Assessment Results

Even when special education students and English language learners participate in the statewide assessment program, their scores may not be included in the state, district and school reports. The issue of validity affects states' decisions not to include the results of students with disabilities or English language learners in public reports, as the results may not be comparable to those of other students. Some states have different policies regarding students who took the assessment with accommodations versus those who took an alternate assessment. A related issue is the use of student achievement results for high-stakes decisions like school accreditation, funding, and staff advancement or recognition.



More states include the scores of English language learners in their regular public reports (37) than those of students with disabilities (34). See Chart 4-5. A similar number of states (7 for students with disabilities and 5 for English language learners) exclude the scores of students with disabilities and English language learners from all public reports. Three (3) states report providing separate reports for English language learners and for students with disabilities.

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What Next?

While the field of measurement has contributed guidance concerning reliability and validity of results that help govern the inclusion and/or accommodation of students with disabilities and English language learners, little actual research exists that demonstrates the impact of accommodations on test validity. Several studies are underway, a number of them sponsored by the National Center for Educational Statistics (US Department of Education).

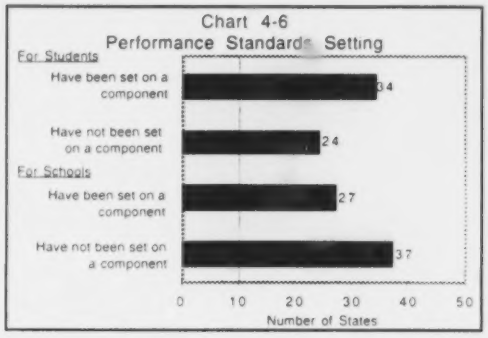
CCSSO sponsors the State Collaborative of Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS) with four projects that address the issues surrounding the assessment of students with disabilities and English language learners: Assessing Special Education Students, Assessing Limited English Proficient Students, Technical Guidelines for Performance Assessment, and Comprehensive Assessment Systems for IASA Title I.

The studies now underway should provide additional guidance to those who are concerned about the right of these students to be assessed and to be provided the opportunity to reach the same high standards as their non-disabled or English language learner peers.

Part II: State Title I Assessment and Evaluation Plans

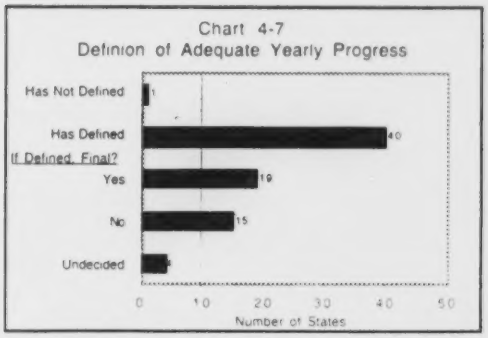
A separate section of the Fall 1997 Statewide Student Assessment Programs Survey was dedicated to states' assessment and evaluation plans for Title I. Of the major issues states have wrestled with in the past, the revision of their academic content standards has been resolved by most states. However, the setting of performance standards to reflect "rigorous standards for all students," and the definition of adequate yearly progress for program evaluation purposes remain issues as yet unresolved by many states. They are also struggling with how best to include all students in their assessment programs, an issue addressed in the previous section of this chapter.

States are required to establish two sets of performance standards for students and schools Chart 4-6 shows that states are farther along in this process for the development of performance standards for students (34 state assessment components) than for schools (27 state assessment components). There are 24 state assessment components for which student performance standards have not been set, and 37 for which school performance standards have not been set.



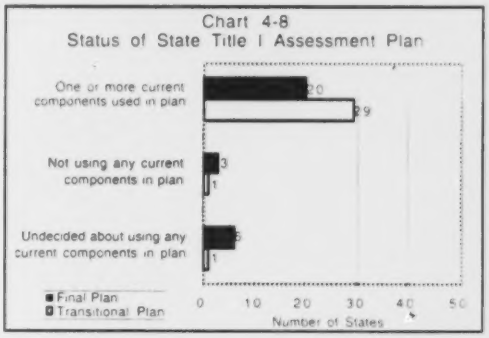
Adequate Yearly Progress

In addition to school performance standards, states must define adequate yearly progress for schools. The state has to determine whether schools have improved the level of learning for Title I students (or for all students in a school-wide program) to satisfy the "adequate yearly progress" designation. According to Chart 4-7, 40 states have defined adequate yearly progress while one state has not. Nearly as many states do not have final definitions (15 states), as those that do (19 states). Four remain undecided about the status of their final plan.



Status of State Title I Assessment Plans

According to the IASA legislation, states are currently required to have transitional Title I Assessment and Evaluation Plans in effect, but will need to have final plans in place by the year 2000. Chart 4-8 displays the status of Title I assessment plans in the states.



Twenty-nine states are using one or more of their current components for their transitional plans, while fewer (20 states) plan to use one or more of their current components in their final plans. Norm-referenced tests, criterion-referenced tests, performance assessments, and writing assessments are all included in both transitional and final plans. Three states report that they will not use any of their existing assessment components in their final Title I assessment plan and six are undecided about using any current component in their final plan.

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Summary

There is so much assessment activity underway in the states that final Title I plans are still up in the air. New content standards are driving changes in assessment content and format, and until these changes are fully implemented, decisions about final Title I plans will not be made. Compared with last year's survey results, it is clear that states are still very much undecided about their final Title I assessment and evaluation plans. Much remains to be done, especially in the areas of setting school standards and defining adequate yearly progress.

CHAPTER FIVE
Statewide Assessment History and Trends

Introduction

This is the sixth year in which the information about statewide student assessment programs has been collected systematically and made available by CCSSO. With data being collected for this number of years, it is possible to begin to see trends in the information. Although this section reports trends over a six-year period, trends still must be interpreted cautiously, since changes in student assessment programs take several years to conceptualize and implement. It is unlikely that substantial change will take place from one year to another. However, the information reported here is similar to information collected less formally in the past, so that it is possible to combine current detailed information with past information to perceive longer-term trends.

The purpose of the following sections is to comment on some of the changes that have occurred since the early 1970s, with particular emphasis on trends since 1991. In addition, several issues that may have implications for large-scale assessment in the future are mentioned.

Criterion-Referenced Assessment and Minimum Competency Tests

When the Association of State Assessment Programs (ASAP) was formed as an organization representing the assessment programs at the state and national level in 1977, two strong innovations had occurred and were being spread throughout the states. First, states such as Michigan adopted a new form of measurement called "criterion-referenced tests" in the early 1970s. Scores were reported as pass-fail for individual objectives as well as proportion of the objectives passed, rather than comparing student (or school or district) scores to national norms. Second, states began to use tests to determine whether students had learned enough to receive a high school diploma. This use of minimum competency testing for high school graduation was exemplified by the landmark program in Florida. A number of states soon copied Florida's approach, requiring the passage of a test for a student to receive a high school diploma.

The ASAP was formed by states to help one another in developing quality assessment programs with the minimum of wasted effort and controversy. Early ASAP meetings were filled with discussions about the procedures for developing criterion-referenced tests, as well as surviving the inevitable legal challenges to the minimum competency tests, since the landmark legal case Debra P. v. Turlington was occurring then.

The predominant form of large-scale assessment at that time was norm-referenced tests. Interest in criterion-referenced tests was pushed along not only by the states that had adopted them as a form of assessment, but also by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in its early years, since several states (such as California, Connecticut, Minnesota, and Wyoming) gave the early NAEP assessments in "piggyback" style in order to obtain state and national data on their students. Not only did this practice introduce these states to criterion-referenced testing, it also served as an introduction to the concept of the state NAEP assessment program.

Advent of Writing Assessment

In the 1970s, assessment was usually limited to mathematics and reading. NAEP, however, began to conduct assessments in a number of additional subject areas, including science, social studies, citizenship, music, visual arts, career and occupational development, literature, and writing. Assessments included both conventional approaches such as multiple-choice items, and less conventional approaches such as constructed-response and individually-administered, hands-on performance measures. Much of these innovative approaches to assessment (and even the subject areas) were dropped due to budget cuts in the 1970s, but one area that remained was the continued use of performance measures in the area of writing.

The NAEP assessments of writing in the early 1970s encouraged the belief that having all

students at one or more grade levels actually write essays was feasible. Although more expensive than the much more prevalent multiple-choice tests of "writing," essay tests were viewed as more content valid, and it was believed that they would lead to better teaching of writing. Substantial debate about the cost versus benefits of this type of assessment occurred in the 1970s, but the belief in the use of performance assessment in this area was so strong that performance assessment remains the prevalent form of writing assessment used in states.

The data on the number of states using writing samples shows that not only do large numbers of states assess writing using actual samples of student writing, but also that this approach to assessment is increasingly finding its way into content area assessments in subject areas such as mathematics, science, and social studies.

Expansion to Other Subject Areas

During the 1980s, additional states adopted large-scale assessment programs as a tool for school reform and improvement. Each year at the ASAP meetings, one or two states new to large-scale assessment efforts would attend. The ASAP group provided an easy way for newcomers to learn from more experienced colleagues, thereby avoiding some of the mistakes of the early pioneers.

In addition, states added other subject areas to their assessments. They began to develop assessments in areas such as science, social studies (or one or more of its components, such as history or geography), health education, physical education, the arts, and vocational education. Interest also grew in the sharing of assessment items or tasks among the states, since so many states were now interested in large-scale assessment. Attempts were made to create item banks among the states, but these generally proved to be unsuccessful since each state clung to its own set of student expectations, making sharing of corresponding items challenging at best.

Performance Assessment

The latter part of the 1980s also brought attention to the form of assessment. Multiple-choice tests were (and still are) the major form of assessment used in most states, with the exception of states that used a writing sample. In the last few years, a couple of trends have started.

First, a small group of states (Maryland, Kentucky, California, and Arizona being first, now joined by Maine) began to use performance assessment (constructed-response formats) as the primary form of assessment. Other states have considering developing such programs, including Massachusetts and Delaware. These states demonstrated that it is feasible to administer alternative forms of assessment in a relatively cost-effective manner. However, concerns about test content caused the innovative assessment program in Arizona and California to be shelved, and caused Kentucky to add a norm-referenced test to its assessment program (and more recently to make substantial changes to its program).

Second, a number of states are working on or piloting alternative forms of assessment. This innovative work includes performance assessments that are given to individuals or small groups of students, curriculum-imbedded tasks in which assessment is intricately interwoven within teaching, and assessment information is collected over several weeks or months, the use of portfolios to collect examples of student work for scoring, and other innovative forms of assessment. As the SSAP survey indicates, few states have actually implemented these innovative alternative forms of assessment (except for the increased use of writing samples), but given the number of states reporting such work, these numbers might increase in the future.

It is likely that, given the costs of alternative assessment in money and time, most states will move toward the concept of an assessment system using different forms of assessment at different levels. For example, large-scale, standardized assessments with some alternative approaches might be used for state-level reporting, while more extensive programs of performance and/or portfolio assessment might be used to meet school or classroom assessment needs. Oregon is an example of such a program. Several states report that such innovative performance assessments are being developed for use by local educators.

A very real challenge to states thinking about innovative approaches to assessment are the costs (both financial and instructional time) involved in using such measurement strategies, as well as very real technical concerns about these new approaches to assessment. Although they have a strong advantage of illustrating better approaches to teaching and learning, alternative assessments may be less reliable for reporting individual student or school results, and certainly are more expensive. Therefore, in recent years, several states have considered the use of a "mixed" assessment model in which students are assessed with a combination of multiple-choice and open-ended exercises. This approach has the advantage of allowing states to assess more content, but at lower cost than an entirely open-ended assessment. Kentucky has and will be using this approach and Massachusetts is considering it.

Another approach to broader content coverage is the use of every-pupil matrix sampling designs. This approach is useful when school and district information are more important than individual student results. Kentucky and Maryland have used this approach for several years.

Professional Development on Assessment

Attention to the forms of assessment used at both the state and local levels has encouraged another trend at the state level. As state-level educators have debated the form(s) of assessment appropriate for the state to use, increasing attention has been paid to the training of classroom teachers to collect and use information that might be gathered from such innovative approaches to assessment within their classrooms. This trend is actually the convergence of several trends, including changes in student standards in order to emphasize thinking and problem-solving skills (while de-emphasizing memorization of content knowledge), plus support for alternative approaches to assessment, such as projects, exhibitions, demonstrations, and the use of portfolios.

The result is that many local districts and some state agencies are now providing classroom teachers with assessment learning experiences that teachers can apply in their classrooms. Washington state exemplifies this activity on a statewide basis. This attention to professional development on assessment for classroom teachers is particularly appropriate given that few if any teachers receive much in the way of pre-service training on assessment. The SSAP survey reports considerable attention to the use of test results by states.

Norm-Referenced Tests

When the ASAP group began meeting in 1977, the most commonly used assessments were commercially-available, off-the-shelf, norm-referenced tests. Despite the attention to forms of measurement such as criterion-referenced assessments, which are more widespread today than 20 years ago, it is interesting to note that norm-referenced tests are still a predominant form of large-scale assessment in the United States. In 1993, 31 states used norm-referenced tests, 30 reporting using them in 1994, 31 states reported using norm-referenced tests in 1995, 29 states reported using them in 1996, and 31 states reported using them in 1997.

There had been an expectation that this number would fall, given the de-emphasis on norm-referenced assessments in the Improving America's Schools Act (IASA), the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. States are no longer required to use such assessments for the evaluation of Title I compensatory education programs, nor the monitoring of individual Title I student improvement. This was a major change in the legislation which advocacy groups and others fought for and won. Instead, states are required to develop and operate "comprehensive assessment systems" capable of reporting whether individual students and school programs are making "adequate yearly progress."

Two events conspired to contound this prediction. First, the November 1994 election brought to power chief state school officers, state board of education members, legislators, and governors with strongly-held ideas about student standards and assessment, often with deep concerns about new the forms of assessment and the standards on which they were based. In addition, policymakers and the public wanted national (and even international)

comparisons. Given problems in some of the assessment efforts first implemented (in Arizona, California, and Georgia to name a few), policymakers pushed to set aside innovative approaches to assessment and to return to commercially-available, norm-referenced tests. States such as Alabama re-implemented norm-referenced tests in addition to their criterion-referenced program.

Second, the changes implemented in the IASA legislation have proven to be less far-reaching than originally anticipated. Due to political pressures, states will be required to change their statewide assessments substantially less than originally thought. For example, states have five to six years to develop a final comprehensive assessment system (and only in mathematics and reading, not in all of the national goal areas, unless they do so for other students). In the interim, transitional assessments of virtually any type (norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, or performance assessments) can be used by the state, so long as they are deemed to "measure challenging state content standards," which is left poorly defined in the federal legislation.

For these reasons, as well as because many policy makers desire to have comparative data using test instruments developed outside of the state, it is likely that norm-referenced tests will continue to be a major type of assessment used in states. To satisfy this desire for normative information, but using measures of higher-level standards, some states (such as Kentucky, Missouri, and North Carolina) have administered the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assessments to samples of students taking their statewide assessments in order to provide NAEP-like scores to school buildings and districts (as well as to the state).

This recent innovation in providing normative information has the promise of allowing states to pursue new forms of assessment while still providing external referents for scores on the statewide assessments. It is even possible that some form of individual student NAEP test might be made available as well. It will be interesting to monitor the success of these efforts and to determine if this becomes a trend for the future.

In early 1997, President Clinton proposed a voluntary national test (VNT) of fourth grade reading and eighth grade mathematics. His proposal was similar to one proposed in 1996 by Governor Engler of Michigan, then co-chair of the National Education Goals Panel. The President's proposal called for the development (at federal expense) of a mixed assessment based on (but different than) the NAEP frameworks in these subjects, to yield individual student scores, and to be given at federal expense during its inaugural year of 1999. States would have the option to give it and several have proposed methods of linking the assessment to their current assessments, not unlike how Kentucky and North Carolina linked the NAEP assessments to their state assessments in the past.

The national test has been warmly received by some who view it as a means of gauging state performance on national content standards, avoiding some of the pitfalls seen by critics in the use of commercial norm-referenced tests. Several states and large-city school districts expressed interest in the assessments, while others expressed concerns about the viability of both the NAEP assessments and their own statewide assessments.

In the interim, Congress intervened by shifting the locus of control for the voluntary national test from the U.S. Department of Education to the National Assessment Governing Board, and limiting activity on the VNT to test development and initial pilot-testing. It is too soon to tell whether the VNT will be authorized, and if so, what its longer term impact will be on states or the testing industry.

National Efforts at Joint Development

Another trend is worth noting. Until 1990, most assessment development was carried out by individual states working alone or with the assistance of a contractor. Since then, two innovations in collaboration among the states have taken place. The first is New Standards, co-directed by the University of Pittsburgh Learning Research and Development Center and the National Center for Education and the Economy, which worked with a number of states and local districts to design and develop an innovative assessment system that will encourage thoughtful student learning in areas

such as mathematics, language arts, and science. The assessments themselves are available through Harcourt Brace Educational Measurement.

The second is the Council of Chief State School Officers' State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS), which currently has nine projects in which states work together to design or develop innovative student assessments. Both of these activities mark a first for collaboration among the states. The states are actively working together to develop assessments from which states share and use the products, rather than simply exchanging information about innovative assessment approaches, as has been the case in the past.

Accommodating Students with Disabilities

One issue that states are beginning to face head-on is how to accommodate students with disabilities on many of their statewide assessment components. Much work appears to be taking place to encourage local school districts to use various accommodations to increase the participation of these students, for several reasons.

First, the re-authorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires states to assess all students, either through the use of accommodations, or alternate assessments for students with disabilities for whom accommodations are not appropriate.

Second, advocacy groups for these students have made participation in large-scale assessment programs a major issue.

Third, federal agencies (the Offices of Special Education Programs and of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education) have provided substantial funding to states to investigate methods and procedures for accommodating students with disabilities. States have used funds to develop new assessments, to develop new accommodations policies, to research the impact of these accommodations policies, and to develop materials to explain accommodations.

Finally, national organizations such as the National Center for Educational Outcomes of the University of Minnesota have been tireless in their efforts to assist states provide accommodations to all students, and have worked with organizations such as CCSSO to work directly with state assessment and special education staffs in design work on accommodations.

All of this work has resulted in a wide variety of accommodations being provided by states for many of their assessment components. The categories of accommodations contained on the survey include accommodations regarding presentation format, test setting, response format, timing/scheduling, and other accommodations. Interestingly, the accommodations permitted in one state may be specifically not permitted in other states.

While many states offer a broad number of accommodations, relatively few provide alternate assessments for students still unable to use available accommodations to participate in the large-scale assessment program. Only ten states reported providing alternate assessments (such as an alternate portfolio assessments) that collect and report information on students. This is a slight improvement from the eight reporting such assessments last year, but still far short of the number of states needing to develop and offer such assessments. Of course, such alternate assessments raise various policy and technical issues.

Assessing English Language Learning Students

As much work as there appears to be in providing accommodations for students with disabilities, much less appears to be occurring in assessing English language learners (limited-English proficiency). Many states report permitting blanket exclusions of students from large-scale assessment requirements, and fewer accommodations are provided for those students who are assessed. In addition, few alternate assessments are provided. Clearly, this is an area in need of both policy and technical development among the states. A CCSSO project is developing appropriate assessments and accommodations for these students.

Setting Performance Standards

Until recently, relatively few states set standards on their assessment program, and if they did so, it was primarily a pass-fail standard on a high school graduation test. However, IASA Title I requires states to report the performance of students at three levels (proficient, advanced, and partially-proficient), in a manner similar to the levels reported for NAEP at the state and national levels. Many states are still working to set standards, due in part to work underway to create the assessments on which standards will be set, as well as due to the complexity and political and technical challenges inherent in such work. Thirty-five states were given one-year waivers by the U.S. Department of Education so that they would have additional time to comply with the Title I requirement to have performance standards in place by September, 1997. It is anticipated that some states will need additional time, although many will have performance standards in place by the start of the 1998-99 school year.

Future Issues and Their Impact on State Assessment

Overall, an examination of the changes in large-scale assessment programs during the past twenty years shows a substantial change in the number of states with such programs, the subject areas assessed, and the types of assessment measures used—as well as the types of assessment measures being developed (and the manner in which this development is proceeding). These changes have only increased in the past few years with the considerable public attention paid to the quality of schools.

Not surprisingly, these changes have led a number of states to re-examine assessment program designs that were adopted in years past. A number of states are reviewing whether their current assessment designs are still adequate and are looking at how such programs as NAEP, the New Standards, SCASS, IASA Title I, IDEA, and the voluntary national test fit within their overall assessment design. Given the number of states that are conducting such reviews, further changes in the nation's large-scale assessment programs are likely. Of course, it may take several years for these changes to be implemented.

Several trends appear at the state and local levels that may have a long-term impact on the shape of large-scale assessment programs at the state level. Certainly, the current emphasis on performance or alternative assessments is not going to disappear. Although there have been some successes (such as in Maryland), the set-backs in Arizona, California, Kentucky, Indiana and elsewhere indicate that widespread acceptance of performance assessment is not automatic. Technical issues need to be addressed in a sound manner, and policy makers and the public need to understand the reasons for such measures, the student standards that they measure, and the reasons why both innovative standards and assessments are needed. States and others interested in innovative forms of assessment will need to make sure important parties are "on board" before engaging in this new development work. More than rhetoric is needed.

Certainly, there will be some impact of the drive now under way in some states to "de-regulate" public education and return control of to local school districts. While this drive is taking several forms, it would not be unexpected for these pressures to affect the extent and types of student assessment in the future. In some states, this may mean less attention to statewide student expectations and measures, while in other states, it may mean just the opposite.

The pressure to provide appropriate assessment training and experiences to classroom teachers is also not likely to abate. The collaborative work across states is likely to spread innovative approaches to assessment more quickly than it has in the past. In addition, the outside political pressures to use assessment as a tool for reform of schools is not likely to lessen. Changes brought about by federal legislation such as Goals 2000, IASA, and IDEA will occur as well, but perhaps at a slower pace than once thought.

Finally, the reauthorization of the NAEP program brought several changes that also may affect states. In recent years, NAEP has offered the trial State NAEP programs, but unfortunately, recent appropriations for the program plans have not permitted a full-scale

State NAEP program to be offered. During the past year, the National Assessment Governing Board, the policy-making board for NAEP, has suggested a number of changes to NAEP. It is uncertain at this point how many of these changes will be implemented, what the shape of the program will be in the future, nor how the NAEP of the future will affect states. If the program is funded at a higher level, it might affect the number of states that administer norm-referenced tests to students at one or more grade levels, since the NAEP data could provide the types of national comparisons that some states desire that are more current, less expensive and more technically sound (particularly if NAEP data can be returned more quickly and in more useful formats). In addition, it is uncertain how the drive to develop a voluntary national test will affect NAEP, the use of norm-referenced tests, or states' large-scale student assessment programs.

Many swirling, cross-cutting trends at the state level are affecting large-scale assessment programs, and it is likely that these trends will affect the nature of statewide assessments in the future. With the annual State Student Assessment Program survey, it should be easier to track the course of changes in large-scale assessment programs at the state level. Future editions of this report will continue to indicate just how such changes are occurring.

RESOURCES

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Ysseldyke, J. *Overview of the Issues of Participation and Inclusion of Students with Disabilities in Large-Scale Assessment Programs.* A presentation at the Council of Chief State School Officers SCASS Special Education Assessment Meeting in Tampa, Florida, January 9, 1996.

U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Educational Statistics. *The Inclusion of Students with Disabilities and Limited English Proficient Students in Large Scale Assessments: A Summary of Recent Progress,* NCES 97-482, by John F. Olson and Arnold A. Goldstein. Washington, DC: 1997.

Summary Table: Statewide Student Assessment Programs, School Year 1996-97

ST	# COM	Grades													Subject								Test Type					Item Type						Testing Program Purposes									
		Kg	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	LA	RD	WR	MA	Sc	SS	Voc	Apl	NRT	CRT	WA	Per	Prt	MC	SWR	EWR	PT	ESW	Prt	SID	Imp	PE	SIP	HD	ED	HSG	Sca	SPR	HSk	Acr
AK	2					A	A		A	A		A	A		A	A	A	A	A				A		A			A														
AL	5				A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		L	A	A	A	A		A		A	A			Y	Y	Y				Y		Y		
AR	2						A		A			A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A			A	A	A				Y	Y	Y						Y		
AZ	1				A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		A					A					A														Y		
CA	2									V	V	V	V	V			V	V	V	V	V			L	L	L		V	V	V	V	V	V	Y				Y						
CO	1					A										A	A							A	A			A	A	A					Y									
CT	2					A		A		A		A	R	R	A	A	A	A	A					A	A			A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y		
DE	1				A		A			A		A					A								A					A				Y	Y	Y								
FL	2					A				A		A	A		A	A	A	A						A	A			A		A					Y	Y				Y				
GA	4	A			A		A			A			A	R	A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y				Y		Y		
HI	3				A			A		A		A	R	R	A	A		A					A	A		V		A						Y	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y		
IA	0																																											
ID	3				A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A			A		A	A		A	A	A		A			Y						Y			
IL	1				A	A		A	A	A		A	A			A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A			A		A										Y	Y		Y	
IN	1				A			A		A		A			A			A					A	A	A			A	A	A				Y	Y	Y				Y	Y		Y	
KS	1				A	A	A		A	A		A	A			A		A	A	A				A	A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A	Y	Y	Y					Y		Y	
KY	4					A	A	A	A	A			A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A			A		A	A	A	A		A					Y	Y				Y	Y			
LA	4	A			A	A	A	A	A	A		A	R		A	A		A	A	A			A	A	A			A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y	Y			Y		Y	Y	
MA	3				A	A				A		A				A		A	A				A			A		A	A	A				Y	Y					Y				
MD	2				A		A		A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A				A	A	A		A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y				Y		Y	Y	Y
ME	1					A				A			A			A	A	A	A	A					A	A					A				Y	Y									
MI	3					A	A		A	A			A			A	A	A	A						A	A		A	A	A	A			Y	Y			Y			Y		Y	
MN	1									V	V	V	V	V		V	V	V							V				V		V								Y						
MO	2			A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A			A		A	A	A	A			A	A	A	A		A		A	A			Y	Y	Y					Y	Y	Y	
MS	3					A	A	A	A	A	A		A		A	A	A	A		A			A	A	A	A		A	A	A		A		Y	Y	Y				Y		Y	Y	
MT	1					A				A			A		A	A		A	A	A			A					A							Y	Y					Y				
NC	3		L	L	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y	Y			Y	Y	Y		
ND	1				A			A		A			A		A	A		A	A	A			A	A				A						Y	Y	Y								Y
NE	0																																											
NH	1				A			A				A			A		A	A	A	A				A	A			A		A					Y	Y				Y				
NJ	2					A				A			A		A	A	A	A						A	A			A	A	A				Y	Y	Y				Y		Y		Y
NM	4		L	L	A	A	A	A		A		A	R	R	A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A	L	L	A	A	A	L	L	L	Y	Y	Y				Y		Y	Y	
NV	1					A				A			A	R	A	A	A	A					A		A			A		A				Y	Y	Y				Y		Y		
NY	1				A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	V		A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A				Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y		
OH	4					A		A		A	A	R	R	A		A	A	A						A	A	A			A	A	A				Y	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y		
OK	2				A		A	R	A	A	R	R	A	R	A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A			A		A				Y	Y	Y						Y		
OR	1				A		A			A		A				A	A	A						A	A	A		A		A					Y	Y						Y		
PA	2						A	S		A	S		A			A	S	A						A		S	A		A		A				Y	Y						Y		
RI	4					A				A		A				A	A	A						A		A	A		A	A	A	A			Y	Y	Y						Y		
SC	2		A		A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A					A	A	A			A	A		A			Y	Y	Y	Y			Y	Y	Y	Y	
SD	1					A						A	A		A	A		A	A	A		A		A					A							Y	Y								
TN	4			A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		A		A	A	A	A	A	A				A	A	A			A		A				Y	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y		
TX	1				A	A	A	A	A	A		A	R	R		A	A	A	A	A					A	A				A		A				Y	Y	Y				Y	Y	Y		Y
UT	3		V	V	V	V	A	V	V	A	V	V	A	V	A	A	V	A	A	A			A	A	V	V		A		V				Y	Y	Y						Y		
VA	2				A	A	A	A	R	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A					A	A	A			A	A			A		Y	Y	Y	Y			Y		Y		
VT	2					V	V			V		V			V		V	V						V	V		V	V	V	V		V			Y	Y					Y			
WA	1					A				A			A		A	A		A	A	A			A					A						Y	Y	Y					Y			
WI	2				A	A				A		A			A	A	A	A	A	A			A	A	A			A	A	A				Y		Y					Y			
WV	2	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A		A	A	A	A	A	A			A		A			A		A												Y	Y	
WY	1										S	S	S	S	S			S	S		S					S						S	S		Y	Y								
total	110	3	5	6	27	34	27	25	22	44	20	34	38	18	33	41	37	46	34	27	4	2	31	33	39	21	4	45	23	39	14	10	4	31	43	37	5	3	2	18	10	37	8	11

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Summary Table Legend

Notes: Totals are computed by adding the number of A's, S's, R's, V's, L's and Y's in each column. In any one cell, only one description is included. See Part III of the SSAP database for component names and component-level descriptions.

#COM = Number of State Assessment Components (as reported by state)

Cell Contents
(indicates at least one component where)
A = All students are tested
S = Students are sampled
R = Students are re-tested
V = Inclusion is voluntary for students, schools, or school districts
L = Assessments are locally determined
Y = Purpose is checked for at least one component

Subjects
LA = Language Arts
R = Reading
W = Writing
M = Math
Sc = Science
SS = Social Studies
Voc = Vocational Ed
Apt = Aptitudes

Test Type
NRT = Norm-referenced testing
CRT = Criterion-referenced testing
WA = Writing assessment
Per = Performance assessment
Prt = Portfolio assessment

Item Type
MC = Multiple choice items
SWR = Short written response
EWR = Extended written response
PT = Performance tasks
ESW = Examples of student work
Prj = Projects

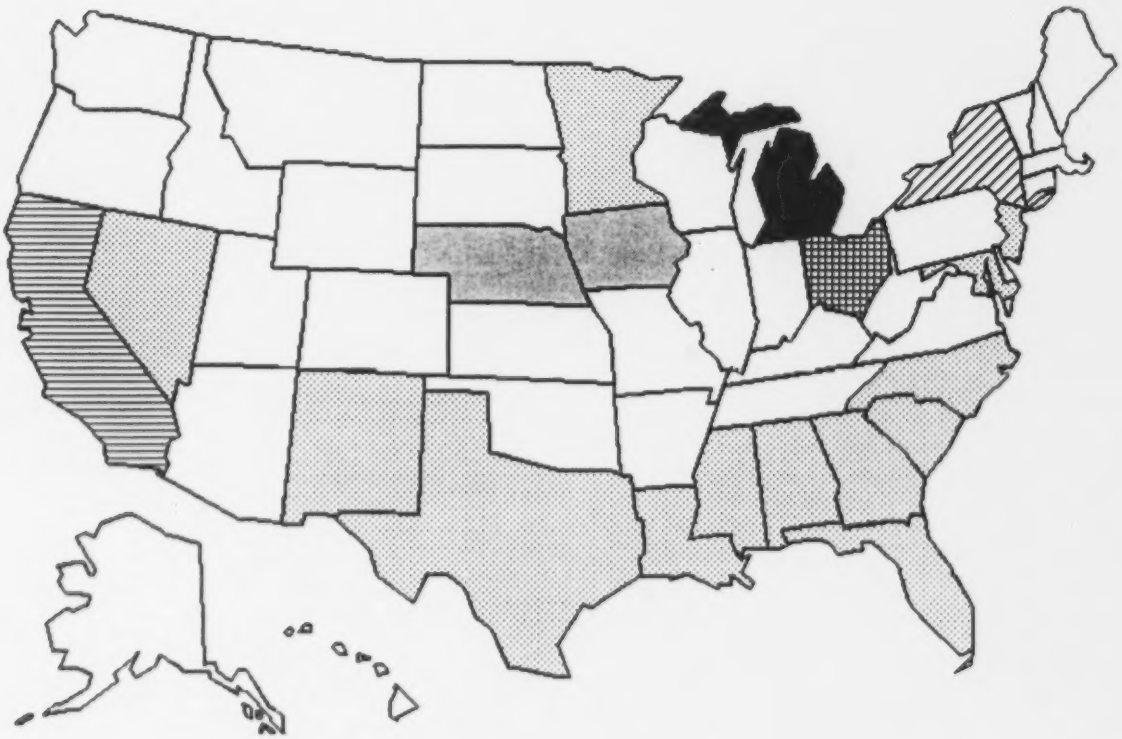
Testing Program Purposes

Instructional Purposes
StD = Student diagnosis or placement
Imp = Improvement of instruction
PE = Program Evaluation

Student Accountability
StP = Student promotion
HD = Honors diploma
ED = Endorsed diploma
HSG = High school graduation (exit requirement)

School Accountability
ScA = School awards or recognition
SPR = School performance reporting
Hsk = High school skills guarantee
Acr = Accreditation

Figure 2-1
High School Graduation Testing



No Statewide Assessment

No High School Graduation Exam

High School Exit Exam Only

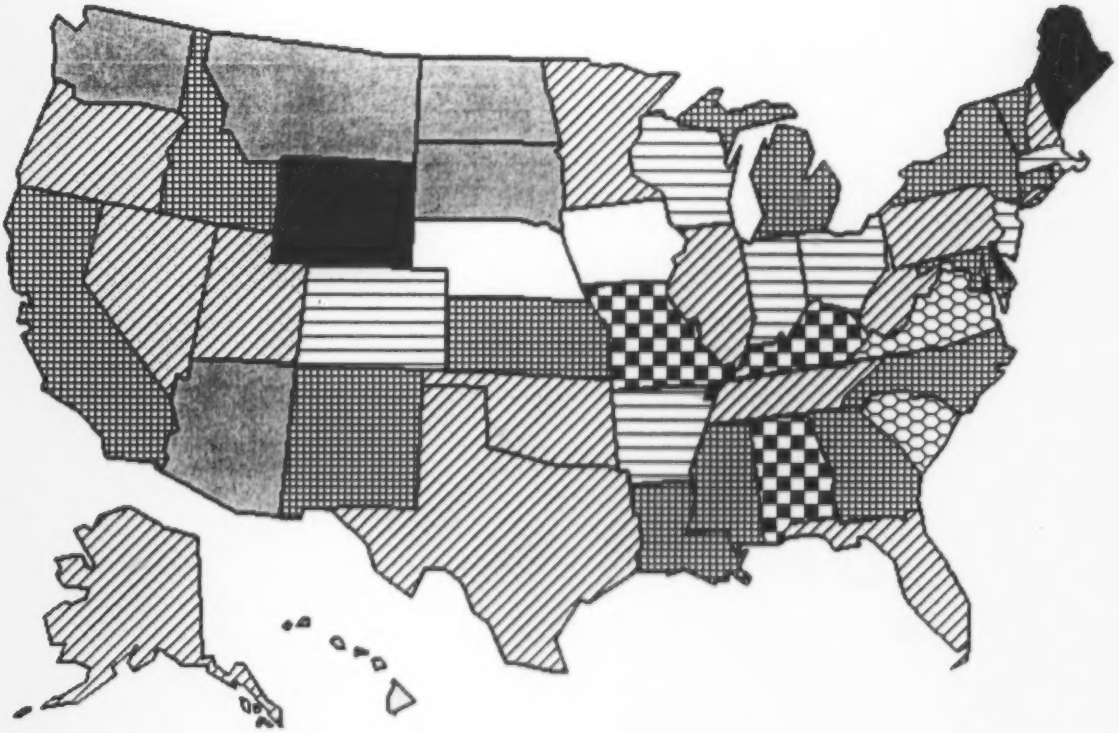
Endorsed Diploma Only

Honors Diploma Only

High School Exit Exam and Honors Diploma

High School Exit Exam, Honors Diploma, and Endorsed Diploma

Figure 3-1
Test Type Combinations



No Statewide Assessment

Multiple-Choice Only

Multiple-Choice and Extended Response

Multiple-Choice, Short Answer, and Extended Response

Multiple-Choice, Extended Response, and Alternative Items

Multiple-Choice, Short Answer, Extended Response, and Alternative Items

Multiple-Choice, Short Answer, and Alternative Items

Alternative Items Only

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